

The Catholic Educational Review

APRIL, 1925

RECENT DIOCESAN SCHOOL REPORTS

Since the close of the school year 1923-24 many diocesan school reports have appeared in print. We have been accustomed in the past to notice such publications when received by the REVIEW in the department of Reviews and Notices. The arrival of a number almost simultaneously this year has suggested the idea of a general review for all those received, with a word of comment here and there on matters of general interest connected with the form or content of the report.

ARCHDIOCESE OF PHILADELPHIA¹

The Report of the Superintendent of Philadelphia appearing regularly for thirty years has come to be regarded as a model or type for many others. It eminently deserves this distinction. As a diocesan directory of schools it is unsurpassed. Each institution is listed with the registration of its pupils, attendance per grade and number of teachers; each teaching community is also entered on separate tables with the schools under its charge. The general summaries of statistical data are conveniently and orderly arranged. It has also contained the resolutions of the Catholic Educational Association, the Catholic Educational Association of Pennsylvania, and occasional papers of value to the workers in the system.

The superintendent's own section for review of conditions and recommendations has never failed in timeliness and interest and, while the present report is briefer in this department than its predecessors, it is not without its merit as a digest of the progressive movements and tendencies in the diocese.

¹Thirtieth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Parish Schools of the Archdiocese of Philadelphia for the year ending June 30, 1924.

DIOCESE OF NEWARK²

The report of the Superintendent of Newark resembles that of Philadelphia in form and arrangement. It provides very amply for the data pertaining to the individual schools, and its value as a directory for consultation on the part of those connected with the system is as certain as its serviceableness to the historian of schools in the diocese.

The report for 1923-24 is really a retrospect of the work of the past year and a review of existing conditions, intended to inform the teachers of the progress made, and, at the same time, to instruct them on important issues under discussion and examination. A very conservative tone prevails throughout the treatment and, while some changes are provided for in the course of study, the superintendent is concerned chiefly with advising his co-laborers against hasty changes in modes of procedure, or too great experimentation in methods. He takes occasion also to defend the status of the private school in American education.

DIOCESE OF PITTSBURGH³

The influence of the Philadelphia report may also be seen in that of the Superintendent of Pittsburgh, and chiefly in the presentation of the statistical data for the separate schools. The superintendent's studies of the statistics, however, his comments and recommendations follow a wholly independent plan. The general statistics are offered in comparison with those of previous years. At a glance one sees from them the growth in registration, the comparative percentage of children in the grades and the larger numbers who have completed grade work and entered high schools as compared with former years.

In his review of the year the superintendent discusses the various evidences of progress; and the changes in textbooks, the improvement of teachers, the high-school situation and vocations. The frank expose of the problems, especially in regard to the high-school situation, will command the attention of all interested in Catholic education. The problems of Pitts-

² Fourteenth Report of the Superintendent of Parish Schools, Diocese of Newark, year ending June 30, 1924.

³ Twentieth Annual Report of the Parish Schools of the Diocese of Pittsburgh, 1923-24.

burgh are those of innumerable other dioceses of the country. Bishops and educational authorities will consequently read with eagerness the description of the educational campaign so successfully conducted for diocesan high schools: they will also follow carefully the outline of the movement for the cultivation and fostering of vocations to the religious life, a campaign of no small promise for the future of Catholic schools in the diocese. Nor will they fail to be impressed with the fact that a wide popular interest on the part of Catholic parents and citizens has been awakened in the school affairs of Pittsburgh.

DIOCESE OF CLEVELAND^{*}

In his Tenth Annual Report the Superintendent of Cleveland studies in an unusual manner some of our leading problems. Retardation of pupils, for example, in the elementary schools has gone on to an alarming extent. A study of attendance there has disclosed the puzzling fact that only 50 per cent of the children complete the eighth grade. He has taken up the problem with supervisors and principals and, although various methods have been instituted to solve it, he believes that the solution lies with the pastors. To them he directs his appeal to keep the children at school and adopt the measures advocated for overcoming retardation and early elimination. He shows by tables what has been the percentage of children graduated from each school and the relation of this percentage to what he believes should be normal. The caring for backward pupils is also treated in this same connection. The very thoughtful study of this question and other related problems is typical of the whole report.

Cleveland has been fortunate in the number of its Catholic high schools, and it is gratifying to see that the hope is held out for more central high schools in the future in place of some of the parish institutions of this grade. Many of the high schools have had the benefit of affiliation with standardizing bodies. We note that seven of the twenty four-year high schools are affiliated with the Catholic University, while two, viz., the Cathedral Latin School and St. Ignatius, are affiliated with the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges.

This report is extremely brief and compact. Covering only

^{*} Tenth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Parish Schools of the Diocese of Cleveland, 1923-1924.

sixteen pages, it suffers from obvious limitations of space and cannot serve as the Year-Book and Directory of information on the Diocesan schools, as do many of the superintendents' reports. For this reason, perhaps, some of the recommendations are not made clear, as, for example, that in connection with the affiliation of high schools. On the whole, however, the report is illuminating and inspiring and cannot but have good effect upon teachers and pastors especially.

DIOCESE OF SYRACUSE⁵

"The brevity of this report may be interpreted as evidence of optimism relating to parish schools of the Diocese of Syracuse," says the superintendent, in his latest report. Former issues of the report have given the details and suggestions which in the judgment of the superintendent need not be repeated this year. The tabulated data provided in this report covering the number of schools, teachers, pupils, graduates and high-school statistics are sufficient for a general view of the system. They do not bring out boldly the grand totals as such general tables should, neither do they provide all the desirable data on the individual schools and the communities engaged in the diocese. The report has, therefore, many limitations in service in such respects. That there is good reason for optimism on the part of the educational authorities is clear from the indications of the growth which has been made in recent years. In nine years the registration of pupils has grown from 11,000 pupils to 20,000, or 1,000 a year. Although religious teachers have not increased in the same proportion, the superintendent is confident of a growth of vocations in the future, and relies upon the increased effort and cooperation on the part of clergy and laity to bring this about. Let us also hope that his optimism will be justified.

DIOCESE OF TOLEDO⁶

The Annual School Report of the Diocese of Toledo is unique among the superintendents' reports. No other coming to our attention covers the same extent of academic work, nor the range of scholastic problems. It includes a review of elementary, high-school and college work conducted in the diocese and in

⁵ Eighth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, Diocese of Syracuse, 1923-1924.

⁶ Annual School Report of the Diocese of Toledo for the scholastic year ending June 30, 1924.

a manner at once comprehensive and satisfactory. Furthermore, it includes a comparison of the work of the year reported with that of the previous year. The enrollment, for example, in the elementary grades, while shown to be larger than formerly, is presented so as to show wherein the increases have taken place and similarly where the losses have occurred. Curiously enough, the enrollment in the first grade has remained almost the same for several years. The increase has taken place chiefly in the third, fifth and sixth grades, and can only be explained, the superintendent believes, by a larger number of pupils entering the diocesan schools from other schools. An interesting investigation has also shown where the pupils leaving the system have gone, both those who have left before completing the eight grades and the graduates.

In connection with the high-school section it is extremely gratifying to see the large number of high schools in the diocese and the large proportion of the graduates of the elementary schools who are entering them, a larger number than that entering the public high schools. While Toledo still has a number of high-school problems to solve, the achievements so far give the best promise for successfully meeting present and future difficulties.

The accomplishments in promoting college work for teachers, in providing the means for securing certification for them (144 Sisters received State Life Certificates in 1923-24), in conducting extension and correspondence courses make up the final section of a report of diocesan school activity remarkable in scope and effectiveness.

DIOCESE OF TRENTON⁷

A report extending from 1918 to 1924 is submitted by the Superintendent of Trenton. It records a growth of school attendance amounting to 100 per cent, an increase of 33 schools and a rise in the number of teachers from 273 to 490 in the period reported. In 1917 there were no free Catholic high schools in the diocese; at present there are 8 free Catholic High School centers, of which 5 are pursuing four-year courses. It is indeed remarkable to witness the fine registration in these high-school centers, and to see the large number of parishes cooperating in

⁷ Report of the Schools of the Diocese of Trenton, from the scholastic year 1918 to the close of the scholastic year 1924.

their support. Twenty-five parishes were represented among the students enrolled in the Cathedral High School, and twenty parishes among those enrolled in the Camden Catholic High School. These two are typical of the centers.

The high school is also discussed as a topic by the superintendent in the section devoted to his recommendations and in such a way as to forestall what might be raised by way of objection to the coeducation in the Catholic schools. His remarks are pertinent and wholesome. The recommendation of Parent-Teacher Associations is peculiarly apt in a Diocesan Superintendent's report, and one might hope that the idea would be taken up and furthered by others.

The report also contains a description of Villa Vittoria, the Motherhouse, Novitiate and Normal School of the Religious Teachers of Venerable Lucy Filipini, whose field is the religious education of Italian-American children and whose activities in a few years have spread to five schools in the diocese and affect 2,182 pupils. It is reassuring to learn from the superintendent that "Villa Vittoria and its Italian teaching Nun is the solution of and is solving the Italian problem."

These several reports make a very fine impression of the thoroughness and progressiveness of our Catholic educational systems. Like those of other archdioceses and dioceses such as New York, San Francisco, St. Louis, Albany, Harrisburg, etc., which usually appear but which we have not seen this year, they are making known the status of Catholic education not only to their own communities but to the country at large. For this all Catholics should be grateful. As they increase in number and improve in quality, is it not appropriate to suggest to the superintendents that they poll their ideas on what a report should be and come to an agreement on some of the more basic properties of a good annual report? None can deny the superiority of some reports over others, yet each has some outstanding features which might be adopted by all. No stereotyped plan or method, let us hope, will ever be chosen as a fixed type for the reports, but a greater degree of uniformity in some respects as, e.g., the handling of the statistics, the use of tables, the study of similar problems would be without doubt desirable and would immeasurably enhance the value of these publications while extending their service in the general cause of Catholic education.

PATRICK J. MCCORMICK.

THE VISITING TEACHER

The Visiting Teacher has become an essential and integral part of the public school system in many cities of the country. Begun as an experiment almost twenty years ago in response to a well-recognized need, the work of the visiting teacher has progressed far beyond the purely experimental stage and is quite generally looked on today, both by administrators and teachers, as a necessary complement to the work of the school itself. Whether one likes it or not, there has been a widespread tendency to throw upon the school many of the burdens which belong to the home. I think it can be said with truth that the school has accepted reluctantly these added responsibilities. All our efforts, however, to call back the home to its primary place in the education of the child appear to have been fruitless. Not only has there been committed to the school the mental training of the child, but a great deal of the work of character formation which is essentially the task of the parent. The school standing thus *in loco parentis* is expected to do a great deal more than was formerly regarded as its main, if not sole function. Today, besides formal teaching, it must also develop character, correct faults, look after the health of children, assist them in bridging over difficulties which arise in their life experiences as the result of either heredity or environmental influence. In a word, the school is expected to act as both teacher and parent to every child committed to its care.

Now it has long been recognized by thoughtful students of education that the school as presently organized is quite incapable of taking care of the many problems which it is continually called upon to face. The school is organized primarily to train the mind, and not the mind of each child through individual instruction, but the minds of thirty or forty children taken *en masse*. Of course, mass education is the only practicable system for our schools, but mass education, because of its inflexibility, breaks down when it is called upon to train any other than the so-called "average" child. In the case at least of super-normal and sub-normal children, the school is more likely to be a deterrent than an aid in their education. Again, the school as now conducted takes little notice of the affective or emotional side of the child,

and yet it is universally recognized that his emotions deeply influence and color all of his behavior attitudes and are as apt as not to make or mar the well-intentioned efforts of even the best classroom teacher. Moreover, we must not lose sight of the fact that there is a series of powerful influences existing outside the school but which force their way into the school, and often make of the child a special problem for the teacher to deal with. Home conditions, physical deformities or defects, bad companions react on the child as student and tend to render nugatory the well-meant efforts of the teacher. All these facts have long been known, but little effort was made until recently to correlate them with the problems and procedure of the classroom itself. The school had discovered no effective means of protecting itself against such disintegrating influences. Even the home, often unwittingly and unwillingly, was working against the school. The school, however, was made to bear the odium of its child failures, when as a matter of fact the school was scarcely to blame, or at most the blame should have been shared equally with the home.

To cope with such situations the visiting teacher was called into existence. Her function was to study the child in his home and play surroundings, to understand his individual educational needs and limitations, to discover any conditions, social, economic or physical which might prove a handicap to good school work, and to work out, on the basis of the knowledge thus obtained, a series of adjustments which would help the child to fit into the actual school situation. Such a study, of course, involves an intimate knowledge of all the factors making for the child's present condition, but no one can question that such an understanding is decidedly worth while if it serves to bring him into line with the demands which the school makes upon him, and, particularly, if it should save from shipwreck at a subsequent period a child who cannot properly adjust himself without such special assistance and guidance.

Begun as a private experiment in 1906-1907 in New York, Boston, and Hartford,¹ the visiting teacher movement has spread all over the country. Today more than 190 visiting teachers work in 64 cities and 6 counties of 35 states.² The movement

¹"The Visiting Teacher," by Jane F. Culbert. *Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Nov., 1921.

²"The Present Situation in Visiting Teacher Work." *N. A. V. T. Bulletin*, Dec., 1924.

has been approved and adopted by the boards of education in the different cities and has attained a recognized status as an integral part of public school work. Although it is still in its infancy, a typical and uniform technique has been adopted by practically all teachers engaged in this work. This technique, it is true, leans heavily upon that already developed by the social case worker. However, with each succeeding year of experiment in the special field of child work, and with the gradual accumulation of more exact information on the peculiar problems of maladjusted children, and of the best methods of meeting them, we may confidently look forward to the establishment of methods which shall possess individuality because they are founded on a scientific acquaintance with the mental hygiene of children and not taken over bodily, and often uncritically, from another and somewhat disparate field.

The work of the visiting teacher centers about the scholarship and behavior attitudes of children who may be classed as problem children. These maladjusted children are not only a continual source of annoyance to the ordinary teacher but a drag on the work of other children as well. For the children themselves the school often becomes but an added means of confirming them in their misbehavior or unsocial attitudes. Now, such children range all the way from the backward or mentally subnormal to actual delinquents. Evidently such types present problems which cannot be solved by the regular class teacher. To meet the needs of individuals in these groups, the visiting teacher is called in. It is her function to inquire into the home life of the child, his heredity, his companionship, and any other factor likely to be at the bottom of his present waywardness. From a study of these causes it is possible to work out a plan for correcting the defects noticed. The visiting teacher works, too, in close harmony with the social and charitable agencies of a community, from which she often obtains most valuable information, as the problem child is found to be quite often the offspring of a recognized problem family. With this information at hand, it is frequently possible for a visiting teacher to change so radically the living conditions of a child as to bring about marked improvement in his school work and in his whole attitude towards the school. On the other hand, when the school begins to understand the actual situation, it can go a long way on the road to adjusting itself

to the needs and limitations of the child. Thus, for example, the transfer of a child from one class to another, or from one school to another, special tutoring, a change of emphasis from one subject of the curriculum to another, a better correlation of school work with the child's outside interests,—all these expediciencies, and many others, may work to a satisfactory solution of crises in the life of a problematic child.

The reasons generally advanced for referring problem children to the visiting teacher include the following:^{*} (1) Maladjustments in scholarship—subnormality, retardation, deficiency in lessons, precocity; (2) adverse home conditions—poverty, neglect, improper guardianship, immorality, cruelty; (3) misconduct—in school, out of school, involving morals; (4) irregular attendance—suspicious absence, due to home conditions, half-days absence. There are other reasons as well, principal amongst which is the easily recognized bad physical condition of the backward child.

In most of the cities the visiting teacher is assigned to a single school, although in many cases she has more than one school under her jurisdiction. In Rochester, the work of the visiting teacher is organized into a separate department of the board of education and is under the supervision of a director. Of the 15 workers there, 13 are assigned as regular members of the teaching staffs of individual schools, while 2 are on special assignments. One of these teachers works with extreme cases, especially those requiring court action, while the other makes investigations. In New York City there are 18 visiting teachers, of whom 14 are assigned to elementary and junior high schools, each one visiting from 2 to 6 schools; 3 are assigned to the Department of Ungraded Schools, and one to the class for sight conservation. Of course the ideal plan is for a visiting teacher to be assigned to a single school. There is enough work to be done in a single school, particularly if the school be situated in a thickly populated district. Very often, however, this is not feasible, in which case the teacher visits a number of schools, generally on the request or at the call of the principal. Her hours are those of the school day, although in many cases she must work after school hours, and even at night, when it becomes necessary to interview members of a family who are

^{*} "The Visiting Teacher in the United States," p. 25.

occupied during the daytime. Besides obtaining all the information possible and making the necessary adjustments both for the child and the school, it is often necessary for the visiting teacher to "follow up" her problem children for a considerable length of time in order to assure herself that the suggested adjustments are carried into execution and have brought about permanent results. Moreover, "the visiting teacher's position as a member of the school staff makes for certain advantages. She gets in touch with cases at an earlier stage than would an outsider. Teachers and parents consult her about suspicious cases which they would not feel justified in referring to a social agency. As representative of the school, the visiting teacher is free from the suggestion of philanthropy, and of all visitors she has, perhaps, the most natural approach to the home, going as she does in the interest of the child."⁴

For the successful doing of visiting teacher work it is evident that more than ordinary preparation is needed. To transfer even a well equipped teacher to this specialized type of work without adequate professional preparation is to hazard the success of the whole idea. Over and above a teacher's license and some teaching experience, visiting teachers are therefore required to have had special training in social case work. A number of schools are offering such courses, principal amongst which are the New York School of Social Work cooperating with the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency and the Pennsylvania School for Social and Health Work cooperating with the White-Williams Foundation of Philadelphia. Teachers from different cities have already availed themselves of these fellowships, the first and most noticeable result of which will be to place the work of the visiting teacher on a sound scientific basis.

There does not appear any reason why this wonderful agency for good cannot find a place in the Catholic educational system. In fact, after mature thought, one is convinced that the visiting teacher not only would fit admirably into our system, but that we are in grave need of just such workers in order to round out our educational endeavors. The remarkable success which the visiting teacher movement has already had in the public school certainly can be duplicated in the private religious school. Upon

⁴ "The Visiting Teacher," p. 8.

examination it will be found that the religious school opens up much greater possibilities for this type of work. The definite character of the religious sanctions underlying Catholic education and the uniformity of religious beliefs on the part of the members of the Church who send their children to Catholic schools should make for an easy approach, and should almost assure us in advance of a large measure of success in any efforts we may make to solve the difficulties, maladjustments, and even delinquencies of the problem child who is a Catholic.

There has been a great deal of criticism of the work of the Catholic school from the side of those who feel that the school is not altogether successful in measuring up to its possibilities in the religious training of children. Particular emphasis is laid by these critics on cases of juvenile delinquency and on the failure of the school to correct such children before their delinquency becomes a matter for court action. Some of this criticism of the school may be justified. In the main, however, it reveals a false conception of what the function of the school is. The school is not a catch-all for every type and kind of child, neither is it an infallible corrector of moral and intellectual faults. Nor can it be expected to solve for every child every problem which his childhood and subsequent manhood shall present to him. In our enthusiasm for education we are forgetting a great truth, that because children are sent to school this does not in any way relieve the home of its duties and responsibilities towards the child. The school is auxiliary to the home, and to claim for it anything more is to throw all its objectives out of focus and to falsify its position to that extent. My personal view is that the time is ripe for a national campaign which shall center the attention of Catholic parents on the functions and duties of the home, which they have allowed to be transferred to the weak shoulders of the school. In any sound system of Catholic training, the home must hold the central and all-important place. The child spends only five or six hours daily for a certain period of the year in the classroom—approximately 15 per cent of his time. What he does in the remaining 85 per cent is under the direct control of his parents, where it must always remain. To fail to correctly evaluate or make use of these extra-curricular educational forces in the life of the child, and subsequently blame the school for its alleged child failures,

is to misunderstand the whole philosophy underlying Catholic education and to be unjust to the school.

No amount of formal training, teaching of the Catechism, or attendance at Mass will of itself correct deep-seated faults, the causative factors of which are perhaps outside the nature of the child. The subnormal child is manifestly incapable of learning with the ease of normal children, neither can the child hampered by a bad heredity or unwholesome home surroundings be expected to profit as largely by the training given as a normal child. The emotional and affective equipment of all children is not the same, as we well know. Yet the same treatment is accorded all children, as if they had been cut out of one and the same pattern. This uniform treatment is not, however, the fault of the school. The Catholic school, no less than the public, is committed to the principle of mass education. We may not, therefore, expect to find the Catholic school more successful with the maladjusted child than the public school is. Until the school is reorganized so that it can more adequately meet the needs of each individual child, and particularly the needs of the ever-present atypical child, we can well expect its percentage of failures to be abnormally high. The school, indeed, may be criticized for not making greater efforts to meet the needs of individual children. Given, however, the present situation, it cannot be justly criticized for turning out failures. Moreover, in judging these failures we must never forget that the school cannot, even if it would, take the place in the process of education which properly belongs to the home. Nor should we fail to take into account the number of remarkable successes which the school does achieve.

The average teacher in both the public and the religious school has not had the sociological background or training needed to handle children whose behavior involves factors which escape the attention of almost everyone except the social worker. As a rule, our teachers are not acquainted with the handicaps, other than mental, under which many children labor; neither do they have the time necessary to go thoroughly into problem cases. Such procedure would involve an amount of time which the ordinary teacher does not possess. Moreover, the time given to maladjusted children would have to be subtracted from that devoted to the class as a whole. Great as the need of the

child may be for individual care, and anxious as the teacher is to help, the whole structure of the classroom and its procedure is against her participating in work of this character. The visiting teacher, however, is both equipped and has the necessary time to handle problem cases without interfering in the least with the regular order of the school day.

There is little doubt, therefore, that the introduction of the visiting teacher into our school system would give it strength precisely where this is most needed, namely, with problem children, and would protect it from the odium of turning out child failures. That such protection is needed to the better development of Catholic education, no one can well doubt. The great problem in the minds of administrators would be, not that the visiting teachers cannot play a useful role in the work of Catholic education, but how are we to provide visiting teachers and the training necessary to equip them for their work.

Before attempting to outline a plan which would meet the situation, it is necessary to distinguish clearly between the different kinds of work we might expect of the visiting teacher. If the work is to be done exclusively with children who are school failures for any reason whatsoever, special training could be given to them by a member of the religious community, which conducts the school, especially detailed to handle problem children. This would be a practicable method of approaching the problem, especially in our large cities, where the different religious communities maintain one or more schools. The religious teacher assigned to this special work would spend a month at one school, the following month at a second school, and so on until she had made the rounds of the schools conducted by her community. Children, however, who are behavior problems or whose scholarship is low because of some outside influence, should be investigated and taken into hand by a lay social worker. One such lay worker might be assigned to a certain district, cooperating thus with one or more religious special teachers. The lay visiting teacher should be attached directly to the staff of the Diocesan Superintendent of Schools. At the same time she should work in close cooperation with the Catholic Bureau of Charities. In trying to solve the problems presented by Catholic children, there seems no reason

in the world why the office of the Superintendent of Schools should not act in conjunction with the Catholic Bureau of Charities. It should not be difficult to work out a differentiation and correlation of the activities of both of these agencies so that there would be little or no overlapping in their efforts.

The writer is not acquainted with any diocesan system which employs visiting teachers except that of Philadelphia. Working under the White-Williams Foundation and under the supervision of the Diocesan Superintendent of Schools, Miss Sara E. Laughlin is doing pioneer work as a school counsellor in the city of Philadelphia. Miss Laughlin is a trained social worker, and her work as counsellor in the Catholic schools has been of the highest grade. The Board of the White-Williams Foundation and the diocesan school authorities speak in most complimentary terms of the experiment which she is now conducting, the results already obtained more than justifying the money which has been spent in the venture.

As regards the preparation of lay visiting teachers, the National Catholic Service School, located at Washington and affiliated with the Catholic University, is equipped to give both up-to-date and scientific training to any women desiring to enter this new field. No great demand for the visiting teacher in the Catholic school has yet appeared, but the time is not far distant when our schools will unquestionably be asking for such trained workers. The Catholic charity bureaus have for a long time felt acutely the need for visiting teachers in the Catholic schools in order to make more effective their own work. When school authorities realize what great good such workers can do, what assistance they can give in helping us to correct the evident faults of our present day mass education, there is little doubt that a general demand will go up for the visiting teacher as an integral element of the faculty of the Catholic elementary school.

JAMES H. RYAN.

THE PROBLEM OF SUPERVISION

In his "Modern Methods of Teaching" Wilson states that one of the seven essentials of a good school is the "instructional staff." If it should ever come to pass that this staff embrace a carefully selected, thoroughly trained, professionally minded body of teachers, then the problem of the supervision of our schools would be tremendously simplified. It might possibly be quite abolished. But while this is a consummation devoutly to be wished, still, despite the theories of those who fashion the teaching of the country, despite the labors of the educational experts, despite even the longings of some so-called practical teachers and the adverse criticism of a few worthy pastors, supervision is an activity which, having entered the field, bids fair to stay.

From whatever angle it is viewed supervision is a complex process. "The supervisor's work is difficult. Children develop as teachers grow stronger, and teachers grow stronger as supervisors grow more efficient." From this it is obvious that the supervisor must ponder the tools of supervision, namely, principles of method, technique and devices until she has gained mastery over them, until they have become second nature, as it were, in the form of efficient habits.

True, many of our Sisters have pursued a course of pedagogy at college before entrance into the Sisterhood, many have been graduated from a State Normal School or a State Teachers' College, still others have followed the work of a Seminar during what is termed the novitiate. These teachers presumably have a knowledge to a greater or lesser extent of the fundamental principles of teaching. While some few—the products of the normal school or college—may be efficient from the start, many display what some facetious critic has been pleased to call "an untutored teaching experience."

It is conceded that one learns to achieve by practicing an art under sound supervision. Now since teaching is primarily an art, this principle must be accepted in the educational field as elsewhere. In "The Supervision of Instruction," Nutt makes this statement: "Correct habits of teaching must pass beyond the stage of comprehension and become automatic before the

teacher attains freedom in doing things spontaneously upon his own initiative." Consequently, since only "correct practice makes perfect," preventive measures should be taken against the formation of incorrect habits by the inexperienced teacher.

It has been said that competent supervision is the best method known for the improvement of the quality and the results of teaching. In this work of teacher training, the supervisor is confronted with many problems but she has at her disposal as many means. Among these are visits to the classroom to observe, and occasionally to teach, the personal conference with the teacher after an observation of her teaching, letters and aids of various kinds sent from the office, the suggestion of educational literature for professional improvement, the arrangement for the teacher to visit the classroom of another teacher expert in some subject, the demonstration or type lesson given by a strong teacher before a group of teachers of the same or proximate grade—this always followed by a critique, and finally the teachers' meeting.

The inexperienced teacher may derive much help from the personal visits of the supervisor to her classroom and the constructive criticism offered in the conference following the visit. Again, the opportunity presented from time to time of assisting at a demonstration by an efficient teacher doing work in her grade is often a revelation and accordingly an urge to stimulate the novice in the field to go and do likewise.

As to the experienced teacher who is mediocre it is necessary to cast about for the cause. Possibly it may be localized in lack of native ability, or lack of training, for it is almost universally admitted now that the teacher is partly born and partly made. It may be a total lack of the professional spirit. This sort of teacher presents the most difficult problem with which the supervisor has to contend and offers a case that demands no little tact on her part. In the first place, the teacher of this ilk must be led to the self-discovery of the inadequacy of her methods. This requires careful handling, almost Socratic procedure. Secondly, there must be inculcated the will to improve. This is often difficult to induce. Finally, she must resolve to adjust the means held out to her to the end to be attained. She must prepare and plan her work daily.

This kind of teacher has, as we are wont to say, "gotten into

a rut." But she is not impossible. If what we have suggested above has been effected a visit now and then to the classroom of a superior teacher, contact with new sources of information, and inspiration in the guise of books and persons, will frequently win over the incompetent teacher to the necessary change of viewpoint.

Even teachers of high merit cannot fail to be benefited by supervision. These gifted ones are often found to be the most appreciative, the outcome doubtless of their greater knowledge, knowledge, however, refined by God's grace always vouchsafed to the humble. Such teachers may be stimulated to do professional reading of an advanced type. They may be invited to lead in discussions at teachers' meetings. Thus do they attain greater professional ability and enthusiasm themselves and by a generous communication of information, they may be the means of instilling in the hearts of their less richly endowed associates the realization of the power that rests with the teacher. Such teachers obviously are invaluable aids in the arduous work of supervision.

To conclude, by alertness in detecting expert and inexpert teaching processes; by commending the one and taking measures for the improvement of the other; by directing observation work so that the visiting teacher may be on the lookout for certain phases of teaching or definite modes of procedure; by conducting her teachers' meetings so as to secure interest and insight in the matter in hand; by gaining the cooperation of her teachers as a result of entering into a common understanding with them of the principles of method, devices and technique set for their mutual guidance, the supervisor has it in her power to advance the standing of teaching in the schools of her system.

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THE TECHNIQUE OF THE RELIGIOUS SUPERVISOR

A recent study was undertaken at the Catholic Sisters College on the present status of instruction supervision as carried on by the Religious Teaching Communities of the country. The report of the entire study is far from complete at the present time. This brief, tentative summary of the findings is made in recognition of the cooperation of the many community supervisors and religious teachers whose contributions made this study both possible and profitable.

The material on which the conclusions rest was obtained by means of two questionnaires, prepared at the Sisters College. One of these was sent to 120 supervisors in various parts of the country, and the other was distributed among 125 teachers attending Summer Schools at the Catholic Sisters College, Washington, D. C., Notre Dame University, Indiana, and Teachers College, Toledo, Ohio. While the returns from the latter yielded approximately 100 per cent, owing to the interest of the heads of the educational departments in the institutions named, the former contributed slightly more than the 25 per cent usually obtained by a questionnaire method.

The replies to the two sets of questions were tabulated separately and yielded a large amount of valuable information on the accepted principles of supervision, devices now in use, and the technique followed. While a complete discussion of each of these points will be found in the final report, the following summary is offered on three selected forms of technique: classroom visitation, consultation with the individual teacher, and the rating of teachers. Under classroom visitation, the supervisors were asked to check the procedure which they found most helpful, and the teachers were asked to check the procedure which is least disturbing to the class and least embarrassing to the teacher.

CLASSROOM VISITATION

Replies to each procedure in per cents

	Teachers Per cent	Supervisors Per cent
ARRIVAL:		
Announced	34.3	35.3
Unannounced	65.7	64.7
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ENTRANCE AND WITHDRAWAL:		
Hearty greeting and introduction.....	31.8	26.5
Quiet greeting	38.2	47.0
Silently from the rear	30.0	26.5
POSITION IN THE ROOM:		
Facing the teacher	33.0	32.4
Facing the pupils	64.2	67.6
Moving about	2.8	—
ACTION DURING CLASS:		
Observe only	11.7	10.1
Take notes	15.6	19.1
Question the class	33.4	21.4
Demonstrate when teacher fails	1.6	15.7
Conduct the class in part	47.7	33.7

The above table clearly indicates that the teacher's views harmonize very closely with those of their supervisors. With one single exception, the teachers approve of the procedure used by those whose business it is to help the teacher. The one exception is found in the demonstration of correct procedure when the teacher fails. Whilst 15.7 per cent of all the answers received from supervisors on this phase of the work favor the work, only 1.6 per cent of the teachers find it helpful. Many teachers were emphatic in denouncing this procedure, and the correctness of their claims can hardly be doubted.

The remaining two points were submitted to the supervisors only. While the various procedures indicated are all more or less in use somewhere, at some times, a very definite trend is evident. Some forms of technique are in use practically everywhere, whilst others receive little attention. Interpretation of and comment on the situation must be deferred to a later period. The bare facts are presented in the accompanying table.

CONSULTATION WITH THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER

TIME WHEN HELD:	Per cent
1. Immediately after class	28.6
2. Later, on the same day	68.6
3. Later in the week	2.8
FORM OF CONSTRUCTION CRITICISM:	
1. Definite statements	29.7
2. Questions of supervisor	37.5
3. Questions of the teacher	32.8
BASIS OF CRITICISM:	
1. Self-criticism of the teacher	17.2
2. Effect of the teaching on the children	46.6
3. Actions of the teacher in class	36.2
SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULTATION:	
1. Choice of the subject matter	6.6
2. Use of helps already provided	12.8
3. Principles of method	9.7

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4. Forms of teaching technique	9.7
5. Devices for economizing time	11.3
6. Lessons plans	12.2
7. Use of maps, illustrative material	12.8
8. Use of diagnostic tests	4.6
9. Suggesting experiments along new lines	11.2
10. Stimulating self-criticism	8.7
FOLLOW UP WORK AFTER THE CONSULTATION:	
1. Group conferences for general difficulties	24.0
2. Lists of suggestions to teachers	20.2
3. Helpful articles and books indicated	26.0
4. Bibliographies on troublesome problems	13.5
5. Visits of the teacher to other classrooms	16.3

THE RATING OF TEACHERS

PERFORMED BY:	
The teachers	3.8
The supervisor	96.2
BASED ON:	
General impressions	65.5
Analysis of qualifications	34.5
USES MADE OF THE RATING GIVEN:	
To complete administrative files	25.5
To determine the teacher's fitness	44.7
To discuss with the teacher	29.8

SISTER M. CALIXTA, C.D.P.

THE AMERICAN CHARACTER—II

LACK OF CONCENTRATION

Professor Münsterberg thought that the source of American nervousness lay in what he declared to be a fact, that as a nation we are suffering from the weakness of inattention. We cannot, he declared, put our mind to anything that requires concentration, and that we cannot follow a train of thought unless that train be exceedingly limited.

President Butler, of Columbia University, would seem to agree with Professor Münsterberg, for he confessed in the April, 1924, issue of the *EDUCATIONAL REVIEW*, "Our great national vice is superficiality." Another observer of American conditions finds that we utterly fail to appreciate the necessity of concentration, though it is the one grand essential to success in any calling in life. We are charged with being too much given to scattering. Because of our ingenuity we are able to do, after a fashion, almost anything we have a fancy to undertake. Hence many Americans are led to a contempt for the man of one idea; and they dive into anything and everything that offers, and show their superiority by the variety of work they can accomplish, confident that they are exceptions to the general run of persons who are so frequently warned by wise men against having too many irons in the fire at once.

It is perhaps this dabbling in so many different fields with the consequent lack of depth that has led more than one European observer to speak disparagingly of the intelligence of the average American. Sydney Brooks, for example, writes, after his own British fashion, in his "Intellectual Life in America":

While the sum total of American intelligence is undoubtedly impressive, it is more by reason of its quantity than its quality. I mean that the educational system of the country has raised a great and unprecedented number of people to the standard of what we in England should call middle-class opinion left pretty much to its own devices and not corrected by the best intelligence of the country. And middle-class opinion, especially when left to its own devices, is a fearsome thing. It marks out the nation over which it has gained control as a willing slave of words, a willing follower of the "fatal short-cut," a prey to caprice, unreasoning sentiment, and the attrac-

tion of "panaceas," and stamps broadly upon its face the hall-mark of an honestly unconscious parochialism. Such, to be quite candid, appears to have been much of its effect in America. I know of no country where a prejudice lives so long, where thought is at once so active and so shallow, and praiseworthy curiosity so little guided by fixed standards, where a craze finds readier acceptance, where policies that are opposed to all human experience or contradicted by the most elementary facts of social or economic conditions have a better chance of captivating the populace, or where men fundamentally insignificant attain to such quaintly authoritative prestige.

While these words seem cruel, we should not forget the low ratings of intelligence revealed by the army tests in the late war. If we assume that the ratings disclosed by the intelligence tests conducted with 1,700,000 of our soldiers are fair samples, then the *average* mental age of Americans is only about fourteen, and forty-five millions, or nearly one-half of the whole population, will never develop capacity beyond the stage represented by a normal twelve-year-old child, and only thirteen and one-half million will ever show superior intelligence, and only four and one-half millions can be considered "talented."³

If we consider the use a man makes of his leisure a fair test of his mental culture, then we cannot rate the average American very high on that score. In this regard we may consider Mr. Sinclair Lewis' *Babbitt* as fairly typical. Babbitt has devoted his energies so long to the business of making money that he has never learned a satisfactory use of his leisure. The undeviating, fixed forms of suburban social entertainments and the inanities of club life bore him, in time, no less than his repetitious buying and selling. He has had to earn his living by his wits and this has established a dependence upon his mind for whatever outlet he has for his creative impulses in play as in work. And he does not know how to play. His efforts at it are pathetically infantile. He is frustrated and unhappy; he hungers for emotional adventure; he wants something and doesn't know what it is that he wants. He is childishly elate for a time when he is selected to make a talk at a business men's convention in a distant city and when his feeble commonplaces are greeted with applause as wisdom and as oratorical skill.

³ Cf. Stoddard, *The Revolt against Civilization*. New York, 1922, p. 69.

The indictment has been brought even against American college men that their conversation does not reflect a high degree of culture. A writer in *The Dial* (Chicago), signing himself Rene Kelly, a few years ago asserted that if you would bring together a group of college men, graduates of the same institution but not close friends, they would talk about "the same things as the tired business man of theatrical disrepute: sport or women, business or politics in the littlest possible sense of the word," the reason being that these men share no intellectual interests. It has been said that with the extension of the elective system at American colleges, there has come into being a generation of college graduates who are as likely as not to be equally ignorant of the classics and of mathematics beyond algebra and plane geometry; who have little or no concept of the rudiments of any science—but who have, it may be, concentrated upon some embryonic subject, like the "science" of economics.

Englishmen often wonder at the eagerness with which Americans adopt what is new. With their country so new and their form of government so new, it is not surprising that to the Americans it is a long time since the adjective "new" was a danger signal warning people away from the article, movement, or idea to which it was appended. Whenever Caesar heard of "new things" going on in Gaul, he used to gather together a few legions and hasten across the Alps with all speed. The religious sects of the sixteenth century were anxious to claim antiquity for their doctrines rather than newness. Even the dandy of thirty years ago ironed the crease out of his trousers to conceal their newness. Now he irons it in again.

Though Europeans may pick flaws in the American character, they are all agreed that the American heart is the biggest heart in the world, fine, generous, sensitive, never refusing to respond instantly to endless calls for help. During the World War and since has the American come to be known the world over for his boundless generosity.

HUMOR AND JOYLESSNESS IN AMERICA

One characteristic that strikes all European observers is the peculiar brand of American humor. But the subject of American

humor has been dealt with so often in literature that no further treatment would seem to be called for here. The late Father Pardow called attention to the fact that the American habit of turning everything into ridicule has a bad effect; it depresses us while we need sympathy for our work. The general practice of making sport of even the finest things in life may be held partly responsible for the joylessness of American life. Lord Morpeth has observed: "There is less misery and less happiness in America than in any country that I know of." A prominent American confirmed the remark by the result of his study of human faces in two hemispheres. The faces of even the poorest and busiest men in European cities he found to indicate an enjoyment and satisfaction in life which is wanting in that of the average American. There is, said this authority, about most of the frequenters of our city thoroughfares a look of careworn anxiety which is deeply melancholy. An English traveler declared that in New York everyone looked to him as if he were going to some place; and in Chicago, as if he had been there and were coming back. It has been rightly said that life is not worth living on such gloomy terms as most Americans live it, and that it is useless to heap up what we call the good things of life if we fail to get the good of them. To vex one's soul with cankering care and wearisome anxiety in the pursuit of "a living," is "*causa vivendi perdere causas*."

An old Jewish writer, far traveled and a practical business man, warns us that they that haste to be rich, pierce themselves through with many sorrows. Among the reasons assigned for the general joylessness of American life, there are two that seem to make a strong appeal. First, we do not make enough of our work, but estimate it by its financial reward only. We are worldly and selfish in our attitude towards work. Secondly, we have not the law of compensation. We do not lack at any time the "good things," hence we do not really appreciate them when we have them.

AMERICAN IDEALISM

One remedy for the joylessness of American life is to cultivate the idealism that is so wholesome an ingredient of the American character. Alexander Hamilton gave expression to this idealism

when he told his countrymen "to think continentally." Lord Reading admitted that "too many in the past have been inclined to think Americans materialists, whereas Americans are ready to sacrifice everything for an idea provided the cause is noble and just." Instinctively we draw our own portrait as people of action, devoted to high ideals. The idealism of the American consists in action. For him Roosevelt's dictum is true: "The great thing in philosophy is not logic, but impassioned vision." American idealism is practical, an ideal of realization. To the American the world is a real adventure with real danger. The title of Gustave Rodrigues' book is significant: "The People in Action: a Study in American Idealism."

Clayton Sedgwick Cooper has also written a book on "American Ideals." By a questionnaire to one hundred Americans, asking what seemed to be the governing ideals of their daily associates and also what were the chief weaknesses of our national character, Cooper was able to base his deductions on a fairly secure basis. The typical American, as Cooper sees him, is essentially a man of action, a time-saver, devoted to bigness and money-making, possessing, however, a large view of sentiment and idealism, awake to humor as to fact, valuing highly the training given by education, and tolerant in religion. With these qualities go a tendency to laxness respecting law and the responsibilities of citizenship, passivity before conditions that spell danger to the common weal, and a disposition to extravagance and display.

It is impossible to reduce to a hard-set formula all the characteristics of a people which is for the majority confined to the artificial life of our modern cities with their mania for mechanical comforts, the ridiculous societies, with their hierarchies of pompously named officials; the athletic clubs, without a single unpaid athlete, all the "brittle pretentiousness" (to use a phrase from Sinclair Lewis' *Main Street*) of that form of urban existence which is most remote from the wholesome tang of Mother Earth. Nor should we forget the weary, dreary toilers who bear up what an Englishman calls "all this noisy, monstrous-mechanical, slick, dollar-in-the-slot civilization—the men who make America a sort of human Krakatoa, and who will some day rush forth living, lava-floods."

Modern industry with its devotion to machine-methods and its worship of standardized jobs is really threatening to kill much of the idealism of the American soul. How much idealism will be left in a man who has spent six years in an automobile factory screwing on nut 467! The *Nation* has recently pointed out that modern advertising methods (for instance, when the airplane artist writes "Lucky Strike" in the air) occasionally offer striking illustrations of the blending of real grandeur with indescribable meanness which our civilization affords, and has warned us that here is an argument that if we don't look out the machine will kill the soul.

NEED OF RELIGION

The thing to save the soul of the American nation is religion. America would on this ground seem to be in a very bad way since 60 per cent of our population profess no religion whatever. This is, indeed, reason for alarm since with the lessening of Christianity the spirit of self-sacrifice on which Christianity is founded, will disappear, and lawlessness and anarchy will reign, and just government will be overthrown. Looking abroad into the country one finds that Christ's words: "Seek ye first the kingdom of God and His justice, and all these things shall be added unto you," are being forgotten, and "these things," "the lesser things" of life, are engrossing the attention of the masses and even of the leaders. "Blessed are we who live in the now," was the anthem sung at the recent dedication of a large department store, and this song is the song of the age; and Christ's words are inverted to read: "Seek ye first all other things, and let the kingdom of God be an addition, or appendix, of life."

Dean Inge largely blames the industrial revolution for similar conditions existing in England. He contends that a generation is growing up, not uneducated, but educated in a system which has little connection with European culture in its historical development. The classics are not taught; the Bible is not taught; history is not taught to any effect. Inge believes that the chief characteristic of the present age is profound secularity and materialism. The typical town artisan, he declares, has no religion and no superstition; he has no ideals beyond the

visible and tangible world of the senses. Hence the wide gulf between him and Christianity. According to Christianity, regeneration must come from within. The ethics and religion of modern social reform, on the contrary, look for regeneration from without, from material conditions and a higher social life.

Here the gauntlet is thrown down to Christ. The Church in this country has a large task before her in taking up the cross-hilted sword of Truth to drive the heathen out of our modern American life. This task is to supernaturalize the attitude of the average American whose chief question used to be, "Is it right or wrong?" whereas his chief question today is, "Is it sterilized?" Life which used to be a brave fight between heaven and hell, has come to be a long and anxious tiptoeing between the microbe and the antiseptic.

Still the American character is even now not irreligious and much less anti-religious. In fact, there are certain elements in the American character that are apt to respond to what is the high watermark of religious living, namely, the religious state. Among these characteristics we should enumerate: the love of liberty, the love of system and organization, the economizing of power by specialization, the daring courage and love of enterprise, the hatred of stagnation and desire for improvement and progress, the perennial youthfulness and freshness, and the continental spaciousness of outlook.

In a letter addressed to Associate Justice Holmes, Canon Sheehan said, pertinently: "Whether America is yet in its adolescence, or whether it is the result of climatic conditions, there is a certain buoyancy and delightful optimism in the character of the nation that is very much akin to the Catholic spirit. And there is also a depth of feeling and generosity which the older nations have long since cast aside in favor of the 'critical spirit.' All this tells in favor of the Church; and I think if some great thinker could reveal the inner serenity and sense of security, with the occasional raptures that belong to certain choice spirits, particularly in our cloistered communities, half of America would rush away from the fever of modern life, like the anchorites of old, and bury themselves in monasteries." Let us trust that these wholesome elements in the American character will be developed and brought to the fore lest our

country come to drift, with its luxury and worship of the body, along the way of ancient Rome.

These elements must also be fostered to prevent the complete breakdown of the sense of morality among our people. There are various causes for the weakening of the moral sense. But one of the strongest contributory causes is undoubtedly our superabundance of laws. Even old Tacitus wrote of the "plurimae leges—pessimae reipublicae." And American experience goes to prove that lawlessness grows in direct proportion to the increase in the number of laws. Margot Asquith told American reporters that Americans make one hundred laws to England's eight and then don't keep them. The estimate is, perhaps, not strictly accurate, but there is much truth in the charge. There are not many nations that have so many restraints as our own. Unreasonable restraints are a cause of crime. An American senator used to deplore the American proclivity to add to the legal statutes as a policy that merely "made new crimes." Statistics bear out this contention. Mr. C. H. Henderson has shown, in *Pay Day* (p. 109), that to every million of inhabitants Canada has each year three murders; Germany, under five; Great Britain, ten; France, fourteen; Belgium, sixteen; while the United States has 129.

Yet instead of turning to the obvious remedy of reducing the number of laws, and thus reducing the opportunity for crimes, the mill grinds out the statutes unceasingly, and freakish laws—like the one in Colorado compelling chickens to go to roost before seven p. m. daily, or, in Minnesota, providing that lumberjacks shall be furnished with individual bathtubs—are passed with a consequent lessening of respect for laws in general.

Our deluge of laws has naturally played havoc with the much-vaunted liberty of the Americans so as to justify the dictum of Lord Northcliffe: "America, the land of the free and the home of the brave; where you do as you like, and if you don't, they make you." This policy destroys individuality and kills initiative. To quote Northcliffe again: "Americans of the third and fourth generation are a great race, but the rabble are the Chinamen of the Western World. They look alike, dress alike, act alike, and think alike."

It is likewise instructive to note the makeshifts that are

resorted to for preserving a semblance of our so-called equality and democracy. In great things as in small, we hide behind phrases; changing the *words* satisfies us just as well as if we thereby changed the *facts*. For instance: "first" and "second" class cannot be painted on railroad cars; all passengers, being Americans, are equal; it would be "un-American"; but paint "Pullman" on a car, and everybody is satisfied.

AMERICA IN THE ADOLESCENT STAGE?

We have looked at the American character from various angles, and have scrutinized it through the spectacles of different observers. But to our mind no one came closer to the true evaluation of the American character than Canon Sheehan, when he hinted that America was still in the adolescent stage. The American character with its strength and weakness seems to us surprisingly similar to the character of the adolescent. Take Aristotle's characterization of the adolescent. The great philosopher speaks of their fickleness, love of honor, sympathy, charity, hope, valor, high aspiration, omniscience, cocksureness, fondness for extremes, love of laughter, and their strong sex instinct. It is not remarkable that many of these traits may be found in the American character, even including the strong sex instinct, for probably in no other country is the "eternal feminine" so much in evidence as in this country—we need only recall what is most in vogue in popular magazines or what is displayed most on our billboards.

Other similarities to the adolescent may be noted by looking at Horace's characterization of the same period in life: the beardless youth delights in horses and dogs and the verdure of the Campus Martius; he is pliable as wax to the bent of vice, rude to advisers, a slow provider of useful things, wasteful of his money, high-spirited, amorous, and hasty in deserting the objects of his passion.

Or take G. Stanley Hall's characterization of adolescence:

There are new repulsions felt towards home and school, and truancy and runaways abound. The social instincts undergo sudden unfoldment, and the new life of love awakens. It is the age of sentiment and religion, of rapid fluctuations of mood, and the world seems strange and new. . . . Youth awakes to a new world and understands neither it nor himself. The

whole future of life depends on how the powers now given suddenly and in profusion are husbanded and directed. Character and personality are taking form, but everything is plastic. Self-feeling and ambition are increased, and every trait and faculty is liable to exaggeration and excess. It is all a marvelous new birth.

Foreign observers generally comment on the youthfulness of the Americans, which manifests itself in various ways. On seeing the antics of the American soldiers in France, a French maid, though herself only fifteen years of age, exclaimed, "Oh, these infants!" Even the rôle that the "eternal feminine" plays in American life is very similar to the part that the girl or the boy plays in the life of the adolescent. It is significant that several European languages had to come to America to borrow the term "flirt."

Or take the rapidity with which baseball, mah-jong, football, cross-word puzzles, etc., succeed one another in engaging the attention of a nation of one hundred millions of people. A few months ago we saw the spectacle of this whole nation, along with its very sober President, going into hysterics over a few games of baseball. But after a few days even the interest in the championship series was dead. Is not this reminiscent of what every manager of a boys' summer camp will experience? He knows that he cannot long hold the interest of his charges for any one thing. Consequently he must be at pains to provide many changes and that at frequent intervals. But to whom shall we give the credit for always providing the amusement and entertainment for a whole nation of adolescents? And who will be wise enough to tell us just what is needed for *educating* this nation of young hopefuls?

What G. Stanley Hall says of the test offered by adolescent education is no less true of the test presented by the training of the American character:

Those who believe that nothing is so worthy of love, reverence, and service as the body and soul of youth, and who hold that the best test of every human institution is how much it contributes to bring youth to the ever fullest possible development, may well view themselves and the civilization in which we live, to see how far it satisfies this supreme test.

Indeed, the Catholic teacher could hardly desire a more

glorious opportunity than to be engaged on a character such as that of the American. The American character offers, like that of the adolescent, opportunities for untold good. Its strength, as well as its weakness, should stimulate the teacher to do his very best, and when he considers that he is contributing his share towards moulding the character of a people destined to play a most important part in the history of the world, he should be filled with the high hope that he will have for his own humble endeavors the aid of "Him Who occupieth the throne of the Heavens, Who looketh down upon the deep, Who is the king of kings, Who weigheth the mountains, and holdeth in the palm of His hand the earth itself."

It would be a tempting subject to examine what specific means might be suggested to the teacher for training the American character in view of its being so similar to that of the adolescent, but for the present, the writer must content himself with referring the reader to his treatment of the subject of the character training of the adolescent as sketched in his book, *The Catholic Teacher's Companion*.^{*}

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^{*} Benziger Brothers, New York, 1924, pp. 333-361.

CLASSICAL SECTION

This section aims first of all to act as a bureau of information for teachers of the Classics, particularly those of Catholic schools. Questions sent to me will be answered in these columns or by personal letter, or they will be turned over to persons fully qualified to give them proper consideration. It aims also to keep its readers informed of the most important movements and events in the world of the Classics, especially such as have bearing on the teaching of Latin and Greek in secondary schools.

Notes on Ecclesiastical Latin (Continued)

C. Syntax

Many influences were at work in bringing about the special features of the syntax of ecclesiastical Latin. The most important factor was the influence of popular Latin, which even in the Classical period made itself felt in such colloquial Latin as we meet in Cicero's letters. Greek and Hebrew exerted their influence especially in peculiarities of voice and verbal forms. Greek literature was read by most of the educated class of the entire Roman empire during the early centuries of Christianity; and, through the Greek Bible as well as the various Latin versions, hebraisms and hellenisms filtered into the language of the Christians of the time. In addition to these influences must be mentioned that of poetry, analogy, and carelessness, conscious or not, on the part of the writer. Certain local influences may be mentioned in the case of some writers, as, for example, with St. Augustine a slight effect from the native Libyan and Phoenician languages.

It should be noticed especially that the cases have lost many of their distinctive uses, making necessary an extensive use of prepositions to avoid confusion of meaning. I shall discuss the main features of ecclesiastical syntax under the successive headings of *number, cases, prepositions, voices, and moods*.

I. Number

1. Concrete Terms

A usage found but rarely outside of late Latin is that of the plural of proper nouns when referring to a single person. E.g.,

Numquid enim a nobis arguitur rex maris *Amphitritas Hippothoas Amymones Menalippas Alcyonas* per furiosae cupiditatis ardorem castimoniae virginitate privasse?

A desire of variety probably explains such common intermingling of plurals and singulars as the following: *loricas et gladios rastra securiculas vomerem*.

The singular is sometimes used in the sense of a collective with the force of the plural: thus, nubentium *crinem* caelibari hasta mulcetis? This construction is common among the poets.

The use of the plural of common nouns instead of the singular, a usage also found among the poets, is common in late Latin. E.g., saepenumero maximos annorum fuisse proventus, vilitates atque abundantias rerum tantas.

2. Abstract Terms

Dräger in his *Histor. Syntax* gives a list of abstract terms in the plural which occur in Latin authors. He cites about 90 of them from authors of the Archaic period, chiefly Plautus. He quotes 420 more from classical prose, and almost 600 others from the classical poets and prose writers after Livy. The use of the plural of abstract nouns increased rapidly as the language grew older, for the reason that abstract terms often lost their real abstract force which could be restored somewhat by using the word in the plural. Examples not common before late Latin are *benevolentiae, misericordiae, ariditates, diuturnitates*.

Miss Vida Davenport, of the Lebanon (Pa.) High School, reports to Professor Sage an exhibit held in the library of the school last June. Many features of the exhibit may easily be carried out elsewhere. The girls of the Caesar classes dressed dolls to represent soldiers, while the boys made models of artillery and of the Rhine bridge. Their notebooks related the campaigns of Caesar, with maps and drawings. The Cicero and Virgil notebooks dealt with the material read, those of the Virgil class dealing with figures of speech, omens, descriptive passages, etc., and illustrated with drawings and pictures. The beginners catalogued advertisements containing Latin words or derivatives, found trade names and titles of Latin origin, and traced English words to Latin roots, using the tree diagram. The Classical Club is known as the Olympic Council, and its con-

stitution is written in Latin in scroll form. Other documents were exhibited in the form of the wax tablet.

Which is the more classical form of the ordinal numeral, *decimus octavus* or *Duodevicensimus* (often written without the *n*)? Both forms are classical, but *duodevicensimus* seems to have been used more frequently in the Classical period than *decimus octavus*. In modern Italian, however, *decimus octavus* alone has survived in *decimo octavo*, and, perhaps under this influence, the form *decimus octavus* prevails in philosophical and theological works of the present day, and in modern ecclesiastical Latin generally.

Professor Sage's account of "A Scientist and the Classics" recalls a type of scholar which we hope will gradually be returned to us in the modern renaissance of Classical studies. Sir Archibald Geikie, the geologist and author of "The Love of Nature among the Greeks and Romans," has just published his autobiography. He pursued classical as well as scientific studies at the University of Edinburgh, and it is interesting that his first publication was a translation of parts of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, made while he was still in high school. He spent the winter of 1902-03 in Rome, and this experience "kindled all my old enthusiasm for the Latin classics, which, though never wholly displaced, had necessarily been relegated to the background in the midst of a life dedicated to the active pursuit of science" (pp. 329 ff). In 1910 he was president of the Classical Association, and his presidential address was the nucleus from which later grew his "Love of Nature." His travels in Italy gave him the opportunity to study the landscape of the Latin poets, and he was attracted especially by the site of Horace's farm and the scenes which Catullus loved so well. He relates, too, how he used his Latin as a means of communication in Norway. Few books illustrate better the vitality of classical studies, and one regrets the more that American scientists do not find time for the wide range of interests and the broad and sound scholarship of such men.

In "Studies in Philology" for October appears an article by Edwin Greenlaw entitled "The Return to the Classics." It is

interesting and useful in that it shows the lively activity in recent years of American scholars in the field of classical literature. Whether the activity described indicates any return to the Classics on the part of the rank and file, as the title of the article would lead one to believe, I have great doubt.

Since the appearance of the General Report of the Classical Investigation many fine things have been said about Latin as a high-school subject, and undoubtedly the public mind has been turned toward Latin as never before since the breaking up of the old curriculum. However, there is grave doubt in my mind as to the permanence and intrinsic worth of this interest. The common tendency nowadays to evaluate Latin in the high school largely for its by-products is tantamount to abandoning the main stronghold of our defense for weaker redoubts. If the intrinsic value of Latin as Latin is relinquished, the defense against the enemy by means of the by-products, once the attack is directed thereon, will be weak indeed. The number who appreciate the real value of the study of Latin is comparatively small, and few, if any, have been added to this number by the findings of the "Investigating Committee." By the very nature of the value of Latin this number must be small. Latin study will ever be carried on by the few, and the fluctuating number of the rank and file who procure a very meagre acquaintance with it will have little effect on Latin studies or the general good resulting therefrom in the country at large.

Dean West writes from Princeton: "The demand for the General Report on the Classical Investigation continues unabated, 150 to 250 copies a day. The General Education Board has given \$5,000 more to print additional copies. We have now printed and distributed 30,000 copies in all. You are now free to announce that the Carnegie Corporation has appropriated \$10,000 a year for three years, beginning January 1, 1925, for the work of the American Classical League." This appropriation is a repetition by the Carnegie Corporation of a similar action taken three years ago.

Of special interest to the teacher of Caesar is "Warfare by Land and Sea," by Eugene S. McCartney, published by Marshall Jones and Co., 212 Summer St., Boston, Mass. The price is

\$1.50. This work is a very recent contribution to our knowledge of military history, and shows in a most unusual and effective way the close connection between ancient and modern strategy and tactics. It makes an excellent companion volume to the latest edition of Kelsey's text of Caesar's Gallic Wars. The chapter headings will indicate the value of the book to teachers of "Caesar."

- I. Permanency of Ancient Contributions.
- II. The Evolution of Generalship.
- III. The Phalanx and the Legion.
- IV. Army Organization: The Growth of Its Branches.
- V. Shock and Fire: The Development of Artillery.
- VI. Greek Contributions to Tactics and Strategy.
- VII. Greek Cavalry.
- VIII. The Martial Spirit of Rome.
- IV. Roman Drill and Discipline.
- X. The Spade in the Roman Army.
- XI. Roman Contributions to Tactics and Strategy.
- XII. Roman Cavalry.
- XIII. Ancient and Modern Analogies.
- XIV. Naval Indebtedness.
- XV. Conclusion.

The Government of Rome is opening a vigorous campaign of excavations in the Augustan Forum, and the members of the American Academy are being admitted with more than reasonable courtesy. The work is to be completed this winter and thrown open to the public in the presence of the King on "Rome's 2678th birthday" (April 21, 1925). At Ostia Director Calza has at last found the marine gate, which proves to be in an excellent state of preservation.

The 21st annual meeting of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South will be held at the University of Iowa. The dates have been set for April 9, 10, 11. Among those scheduled to speak are Dean Andrew F. West, of Princeton, president of the American Classical League, and Miss Frances E. Sabin, of the Service Bureau for Classical Teachers.

On March 6 Dr. Mitchell Carroll, of George Washington Uni-

versity, Washington, D. C., passed suddenly away at his home. He was Professor of Archaeology and editor of the illustrated monthly magazine, *Art and Archaeology*. It was largely due to his efforts that this periodical, which deals with the arts throughout the ages, has reached its present state of prosperity. Besides being the author and editor of several works dealing with the Classics, he aided greatly in the carrying out of many projects for the promotion of Greek and Latin studies.

New books of interest to the teacher of the Classics:

Greek and Roman Sculpture in American Collections, by G. H. Chase. Harvard University Press.

Our Debt to Greece and Rome, by E. B. Osborn. Hodder and Stoughton.

Studies in the Life of the Early Church, by F. J. Foakes-Jackson. Hodder and Stoughton.

A Short Guide to the Accentuation of Ancient Greek, by J. P. Postgate. Hodder and Stoughton.

Peeps at Ancient Crete, by James Baikie Black. For children.

Everyday Life in Roman Britain, by M. and C. H. B. Quennell. Batsford. For children.

AFFILIATED HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE SECTION

In the February, 1924, issue of the CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL REVIEW an explanation of the first regulation governing the giving of the yearly examinations in the affiliated schools was given in detail. It was there pointed out that the purpose of this regulation, as stated on page 47 of the Syllabus, was three-fold: "It aims at uniformity, it provides for equality and helps toward standardization of the high school curriculum." A careful review of these purposes will greatly aid the supervisor of the examinations in each of the schools at this time. The order for examinations is about to be sent, and the number of copies requested for each subject may have to be modified as a result of a careful observance of this regulation, the review of which we now advise. Such procedure will do a great deal to prevent many of the unnecessary disappointments that might otherwise occur. The arrangement of the Examination Schedule for 1925, which is published below, should be kept in mind during this suggested review. It is to be noted that all the examinations of the several years in any one of the approved studies are scheduled to begin at the *same hour* as well as on the *same day*. This fact is the main feature of the regulation that is most liable to escape the attention of those in charge of the examinations.

In close connection with the regulation mentioned above is the one explained in the March, 1924, issue of this REVIEW. A rereading of this article is likewise advocated at this time. It will remind those in charge of the examination program, in each of the schools, to be watchful that nothing along these lines be permitted which will render the pupils ineligible as stated in regulation number 8, page 4, of the Syllabus, for the General Certificate.

That concessions to these and other regulations are granted under certain circumstances goes without saying. These concessions, however, are never to be assumed and should be secured ordinarily before the end of the fall term of the scholastic year. The reasons for this latter have been fully stated in the February number of this REVIEW for 1924. Among the many

possible cases where a need for a concession is very liable to arise, those resulting from the entrance of pupils from non-affiliated schools seem to be in excess of any other. That this is so is from one angle a very healthy sign; it bespeaks a growing recognition of the type of work being accomplished and the high standards being maintained in the affiliated schools. From another angle it must be regarded with no little concern. If not properly controlled, it is very liable to be the "Wooden horse which may destroy the city." Concessions arising from this condition should not be sought except in very urgent cases. It should be, in general, the policy of each affiliated school to be reluctant to modify its existing regulations for those pupils who enter late in their course. It has been and will continue to be the fixed attitude of the Committee on Affiliation to do its utmost to maintain a like policy. To do otherwise would in many cases be putting at an unfair disadvantage those pupils who have been registered in an Affiliated School from the very beginning of their course. It is hoped, therefore, that the local administration of each affiliated high school will strive to co-operate in maintaining such wise and protective measures.

EXAMINATION SCHEDULE FOR 1925

The examinations will be held beginning May 22, and in the following order:

Religion.....May 22, 9 A. M.	French.....May 22, 2 P. M.
Mathematics....May 23, 9 A. M.	German.....May 23, 2 P. M.
English.....May 25, 9 A. M.	Spanish.....May 25, 2 P. M.
Latin.....May 26, 9 A. M.	Biology.....May 26, 2 P. M.
History.....May 27, 9 A. M.	Chemistry.....May 27, 2 P. M.
Music.....May 28, 9 A. M.	Physics.....May 28, 2 P. M.
Greek.....May 29, 9 A. M.	Logic.....May 29, 2 P. M.
Commercial	Bookkeeping....June 1, 2 P. M.
Geography....June 1, 9 A. M.	Economics.....June 2, 2 P. M.
Commercial	
Arithmetic....June 2, 9 A. M.	

Examination in Polish (see CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, January, 1925, p. 45).

For affiliated High Schools, June 3, 9 A. M.

For affiliated Novitiates, August 13, 9 A. M.

NEWS ITEMS

"Mt. Gallitzin," of Baden, Pa., reports that the new auditorium and gym are completed and have already been found to be an indispensable part of the life at the Academy. The Rev. Paul Campbell, of Pittsburgh, lectured at the Academy recently. His subject was The Constitution. A lecture on Irish Folklore was given by Seumus McManus. By means of a cinematograph, which has been procured by the Academy, educational movies now form a part of the classwork in several of the studies. The pupils of the American History Class of this institution presented on February 22 a drama entitled "The Men of 76."

St. Francis High School, of St. Francis, Wis., reports that the reference library has been enriched by the addition of some 130 volumes.

Holy Cross Academy, of Washington, D. C., numbered among her notable visitors and lecturers the following: Clark Griffith, Frederick Paulding, Mrs. Fenetta Haskell, Florence Lutz, Seumus McManus, Alice Morse and Estelle Allen.

The seniors of this Academy were recently received by President Coolidge at the White House.

Mt. St. Mary's Academy of St. Charles, Ill., sends in word that the new building is nearing completion. It is Tudor in style, three stories in height, constructed of faced brick with Bedford stone trimmings. On the first floor besides the classrooms there is a cafeteria and a combination gymnasium and auditorium, running through two stories. On the second floor the main chapel is located and, in addition, some extra classrooms. On the third floor the laboratories for domestic science, physics and chemistry have been placed in order to secure additional light, air and space. On this floor also provision has been made for the musical studio and ten sound-proof practice rooms. The building is fireproof throughout and equipped with the most modern appliances in all its details. The architects are Barry and Gliotto, of Chicago.

Marymount Academy of New York announces that its La Societe Dramatique de Ste. Constance presented in the original the drama *Le Pauvre sous l'Escalier*, by Henri Gheon. This was its first appearance on the American stage.

Right Rev. Msgr. A. J. Rawlinson, of St. Mary's of the Woods, Indiana, was the guest of the faculty and students of Immaculate Seminary of Washington, D. C. He gave a lecture on the life and work of Reverend Mother Theodore Guerin, the foundress of the Sisters of Providence. The reverend prelate is en route to Rome in the interests of the cause of Mother Guerin's beatification.

Mr. Frederick Paulding read Joseph Conrad's "Lord Jim" at this school on February 7. In his very interesting comments Mr. Paulding clearly showed the false philosophy underlying much of Conrad's work.

A practical means of giving due recognition to students who distinguish themselves in curricular and extra-curricular activities has been devised at the Catholic Central High School of Lake County, Indiana. It is known as the Honor Monogram Club. Any affiliated high school interested in the details of this movement can secure them by corresponding with the Reverend Moderator of the club. The 1924 football team of this institution has the unique record of not experiencing a single defeat.

The Academic Library of St. Joseph's Academy of St. Augustine, Fla., has been greatly enriched by the recent gift of Mrs. Colee, an alumna of the school. At the last annual meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, this institution was accredited as a member. The golden jubilees of Reverend Mother M. Louise, Sisters Gertrude and M. Teresa were celebrated with fitting ceremonies last month. Among the recent guests at St. Joseph's were the Apostolic Delegate and his traveling companions. His Excellency celebrated Mass at the school on the 27th of January and gave the Papal Benediction to all present. An original play entitled "Connecting Links" was presented by the students of the history class. This is the second play in a series of experiments in the project method as an aid in teaching history.

LEO L. McVAY.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

THE REVISION OF THE CURRICULUM

At the recent meeting of the Department of Superintendents of the National Educational Association, in Cincinnati, the problem of the curriculum was the principal point discussed. Dr. Edwin C. Broome, superintendent of the Philadelphia schools and chairman of the committee appointed by the Department of Superintendence to investigate this subject, brought out the fact that the majority of educators are convinced that the public-school curriculum is overcrowded, that it is too varied, and is in need of thorough revision, if not a radical reconstruction, on entirely different standards from those which have been in control for twenty-five years. Among other things he stated:

School people are ready for a concerted attack on the problem, provided proper leadership and proper assistance can be given. Some conspicuously good work has been done in several cities in the country in curriculum revision, and many studies have been made in various aspects of the curriculum during recent years. Unfortunately, these efforts have been isolated, and the results have never been pooled in such a way that others may readily benefit.

The commission on the curriculum, appointed at the 1924 meeting of the Department of Superintendence, at its first meeting, unanimously agreed to make as complete a collection of the outstanding curriculum studies as possible, analyze these and discover to what conclusion they seem to point. The year book of the Department of Superintendence for this year, therefore, is devoted almost entirely to a report of the commission.

The main purpose of the commission on the curriculum as carried out in the year book is to encourage and assist superintendents throughout the country in an intelligent revision of the curriculum. We hope that by bringing together in one place and by analyzing and centralizing all of the important pieces of curriculum study and research of recent years much of the need of sending out questionnaires, or writing to other superintendents for their courses of study and of groping blindly without adequate knowledge of what has been found practicable elsewhere may be obviated.

The problem is too large to be undertaken by any one school system or agency, and requires concerted action to avoid being blocked by the forces of conservatism, declared Dr. Charles H.

Judd, director of the School of Education, University of Chicago. "Conservatism," he added,

such as comes from the lack of willingness on the part of teachers to teach new subjects, from the desire of textbook owners to sell their particular wares, and from the tendency of parents to established customs must be overcome by organized educational forces.

This means that the members of the Department of Superintendence must persuade boards of education to provide, not only the people necessary to teach courses, but what is enormously more important, the selected people who will constantly prepare new and broader materials with which to reconstruct the curriculum. If a few people of this latter type are provided in each school system the aggregate results will be a widespread positive reconstruction of the curriculum.

EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS

Catholic School Interests (February): Sister Mary Virginia, *Class Room Discipline*. A sane discussion of fundamental problems, emphasizing principles based on sound educational philosophy. Sister Mary Borgia, *A Fourth Grade Sand Table Problem*. A very good example of a project in Fourth Grade Geography. Sister Mary Denise, *Some Practical Helps for Chemistry Teachers*. A heart-to-heart talk, based on enlightened personal experience.

Educational Administration and Supervision (March): Butterworth, Julian E., *Defining the Local Rural School Unit in Terms of Its Objectives*. The character of the local school unit of administration bears a very distinct relation to the success and the efficiency of rural instruction. Frank, J. O., *Aspects of Practice-Teaching in the Preparation of Chemistry Teachers in a State Normal School*. Discusses the administration of practice-teaching in the State Normal School, at Oshkosh, Wisconsin. Should be interesting to all who are engaged in teacher-training. Russell, Charles, *The Attainment of Mastery in Courses of Education*. Some interesting observations on the problem of getting professional training to carry over.

The Elementary School Journal (February): Judd, Charles H., *The Psychology of the Fine Arts*. A psychological analysis intended to point the way for a more rational treatment of the Fine Arts, which, as now taught, are frequently a detriment rather than an aid to the pupil's development. Charters, W. W.,

Ideals, Situations and Trait Actions. Situations, in which actions consonant with certain ideals are demanded, are listed. Useful for moral training. Hartwell, S. O., *A Side-light on Platoon Schools*. Points out the factors which he considers responsible for the success of the Platoon School. The academic teacher is relieved of most special work and supervision is better organized. Smith, M. Coleen, *A Study to Determine the Effectiveness of Kindergarten Training*. An interesting study which indicates that many of the things claimed for the Kindergarten-trained child are not realized in fact. Suggests a more careful analysis of the objectives of Kindergarten training as a guide to Kindergarten practice.

The Journal of Educational Psychology (March): Hurlock, Elizabeth B., *An Evaluation of Certain Incentives Used in School Work*. An interesting account of an experiment intended to discover the relative effectiveness of praise, reproof and ignoring, in getting the best work out of pupils. Clem, Orlie M., *Latin Prognosis: A Study of the Detailed Factors of Individual Pupils*. An attempt to find out by objective methods the specific abilities which may possibly influence the pupil's success in first-year Latin.

The Journal of Educational Research (March): Knight, F. B., Ruch, G. M., and Lutes, O. S., *How Shall Subtraction Be Taught?* Contrasts the subtractive and additive methods of teaching subtraction. Thirteen criteria are proposed. The subtractive and borrowing methods seem to have the better of the argument. Charters, W. W., *Success, Personality, and Intelligence*. A thoughtful article showing that personality traits need to be taken into account as well as intelligence rating, in passing final judgment on the child. Horn, John Louis, *The Educative Values of Practice Teaching*. Graduates of a Teachers' College give testimony as to the cultural as well as professional advantages of practice teaching.

The School Review (March): Reavis, W. C., *Utilizing the Results of the Downey Individual Will-Temperament Test in Pupil Administration*. A study showing that the Downey test brought out certain characteristics not shown by the intelligence test. Indicates that temperament and volition must not be overlooked in the guidance and management of the pupil personnel of the high school. Jones, Arthur J., *Age at Graduation*

from College and Success in Life. The lives of successful men as rated in "Who's Who in America," were studied for the purpose of finding out whether acceleration of bright pupils causes breakdowns in later life. The evidence would seem to show that students who graduate from college under the median age have a somewhat greater chance of success than those who are older. Wilson, Ella Ehmsen, *The Girls' League as an Agency in the Education of High-School Girls.* What one school has done to meet the disciplinary problems of the high school. A league was formed which seems to have accomplished some real things in spite of its seeming artificiality. Hayes, Fanny F., *Supervision from the Point of View of the Teacher.* A teacher takes the present method of supervision to task and makes a plea for a more democratic ideal which calls for more cooperation with the teachers, and less evidence of inspection.

Teachers College Record (March): Caldwell, Otis W., *What Now and What Next Is Theory and Practice?* A thoughtful appraisal of the present educational situation, with an indication of some studies which are being made to improve the school work in Lincoln School of Teachers College. Gates, Arthur, *Problems in Beginning Reading.* A thoughtful and well-organized survey of the teaching methods and materials found in twenty-one representative first-year courses in reading. Many differences and variations in procedure are noted, which leads to the conviction that much of our prevalent methodology is based on sheer tradition, and that there is need for experimental studies to determine which methods of instruction are the more efficient and certain to function.

G. J.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

Dynamic Psychology, by Dom Thomas Vernon Moore, Ph.D.,
M.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1924. Pp. 439.

\$ 3.00
Reviewed by R. Boyd Barrett, J. G. D.
Dr. Moore is one of the first scholastics to stake a claim in the new regions opened up by modern biological psychologists. He frankly accepts the modern definition of psychology as "The science of human personality," and with the new school he studies how human beings think, feel, dream, malingering, become obsessed, assume hysterical parataxes, and how they react in and adjust themselves to the conflicts of life. His standpoint is not that of a behaviorist who only watches and measures physical and external changes in the human organism, nor of a physiologist who reduces vital and psychical phenomena to the functioning of nerve fibers, but of a staunch believer in the freedom of the will and the spirituality of the soul. But at the same time he rejects the old definition of psychology as "the science of the soul," as unsatisfactory. Dr. Moore answers the question, "are there any mental states that are not in the field of consciousness?" with a tentative affirmative. "It is very likely that there are unconscious mental processes" (p. 28). But he only makes this admission after a very careful critique of the various arguments adduced in favor of the unconscious. He regards the evidence adduced by Morton Prince, from his experiments in co-consciousness, as the most valuable and important of all. It may be that Dr. Moore errs on the side of caution in this matter.

Dr. Moore accepts in general the modern theory regarding dream-interpretation and regards dream-interpretation as a useful adjunct in psycho-therapy. "Seeing that repressed desires constitute a large element in our subconscious or unconscious life the analysis of dreams becomes a very important method in the study of the unconscious" (p. 36). But in this and other matters he is very definite in indicating the errors and exaggerations of materialistic psychologists. Again and again he points to the unjustifiable generalizations of Freud. Dr. Moore nevertheless quite rightly pays tribute to the good work done by Freud in demonstrating the psychogenic origin of many

mental disorders. "Freud made us realize that a great many mental disorders are due to mental factors and can be treated by the proper technique of psycho-therapy. This is a great service and one that must not be underestimated" (p. 259).

Dr. Moore's skill and experience as a neurologist is evidenced in many places. What Dr. Moore writes of the rarity of the classic unconscious "complex"; of the infrequency of a perfect "catharsis"; of the uselessness of analysis unless the subject be "of good intellectual ability"; of the need of supplementary analysis with the type of synthesis recommended by Jung; and lastly of the practical working value of the theories of Meyer and Adler, shows his perspicacity and first-hand experience. Perhaps the most valuable part of Dr. Moore's work is that which deals with the Parataxes—abnormal conditional adjustments, comprising functional disabilities due to unconscious pretence of some kind, e.g., hysterical mutism or convulsive seizures. He regards parataxes as "elements of the psychoses and the psychoneuroses"—states which shade into, and become imperceptibly psychoses and psychoneuroses. Dr. Moore supplies a wealth of illustrations from his own clinical experience and from psycho-therapeutic literature which adds to the interest and value of the book. At times however, some of the examples adduced are hardly apropos (e.g., pp. 370, 374, etc).

"Dynamic Psychology" fulfills the purpose of its author in giving an insight into modern trends of psychology, in affording a method of autognosis, and a practical introduction to clinical problems and the treatment of nerve and mind troubles. It is the work of a keen observer, a deep reader, and a careful thinker. It is a most successful invasion of a Catholic priest of a field of learning hitherto almost the monopoly of non-Catholics. It is a new demonstration that Science and Faith can go hand in hand.

We cannot agree with all that Dr. Moore writes in his analysis of instincts, and we believe that the book embraces over-much and might be improved by judicious pruning. Dr. Moore too, like all of us, has difficulty in maintaining a perfect consistency in his use of the harassing terms "sub-conscious" and "un-conscious." But apart from these points, we consider the book very valuable and recommend it whole-heartedly to clergymen,

doctors, educationalists, and students of law and journalism.

E. BOYD BARRETT.

The Early Irish Monastic Schools, a Study of Ireland's Contribution to Early Medieval Culture, by Hugh Graham, M.A. Dublin, The Talbot Press Limited, 1923. Pp. 206.

The aim of this study is to give within reasonable limits a critical and fairly complete account of the Irish Monastic Schools which flourished prior to 900 A. D. It is begun with chapters on Irish learning in Pagan times, the introduction of classical learning and Irish Monasticism, for the author believes that the peculiar character of the Irish Monastic school was the result of the fusion of three distinct elements: first, the native Irish culture; second, Christianity, and, third, Greco-Roman culture. The characteristics of Irish Monasticism are given as they are represented by the Monastic rules, lives of Irish saints, and the Church, social and political history of Ireland. The body of the work deals with the relation of the Irish Monastic schools to the general educational situation (550-900), the course of studies, the scope and influence of Irish scholarship.

Students of early medieval culture and education will find this work an admirable compendium and summary of the Irish contributions to science, sacred and profane, and to education, particularly of the higher grade. The text is well supported with references to recognized authorities and secondary sources. Perhaps one will be disappointed in not finding more personal views of the author, but this would be too much to expect in any survey. For those especially who are interested in Irish culture in some of its best days, this book will be valuable indeed. Unlike other works on Irish schools it has kept the broad lines of the subject in the foreground with sufficient detail on particular schools for reference and example. It is, therefore, attractive reading and gives a more comprehensive view of the subject than any other work in English.

PATRICK J. McCORMICK.

New Biology, by Smallwood, Reveley and Bailey. New York and Boston: Allyn and Bacon. Pp. 704. List Price, \$1.60.

A noteworthy change has taken place during the past few

years in the attitude of teachers toward the content of the High School Course in Biology. They have gradually gotten away from the formal division of the subject into Botany, Zoology and Physiology, and are teaching the science as a unit course in which the various life functions are observed as they occur in animals, plants and man. Biology is thus no longer a study of types; it is a study of life. Plants and animals are studied as living organisms, as far as possible in their natural environment, with the object of making the young student familiar with life processes in general and of showing him the interdependence of the various forms of life. Particularly does the study aim to show the relations of plants and animals to man and to acquaint the pupil with the methods that have been developed to control the lower organisms for human ends.

The "New Biology" offers a splendid treatment of the science from this viewpoint. In my opinion, it is the best High School Biology that has so far appeared. The subject matter is well arranged and the authors have thus eliminated one of the objections to their previous text. Other features that will appeal to the teacher are the outlines, summaries and questions at the end of each chapter, the many well-selected illustrations (416 in all), and an excellent glossary that offers readily accessible definitions of biological terms. The authors have omitted all discussion of the Theory of Evolution. This might be considered a defect in as much as it is generally held that the high-school student should at least be made acquainted with the theory; but, on the other hand, there is so much disagreement on the subject and we have had introduced into our textbooks as scientific fact so much that is still in the realm of speculation, that, on the whole, it is perhaps just as wise to leave the treatment of the question to the discretion of the teacher.

There are a few statements in the text that should be amended in the interests of scientific accuracy. I do not think it is quite correct to say, for instance, that "the response of plants to stimuli is called sensation" (p. 15). Alcohol may not have any food value, though some would question this assertion, but the reason given, viz., "because it contains no nitrogen" (p. 299), is certainly not correct; otherwise the carbohydrates would cease to be foods also.

EDWARD B. JORDAN.

Essentials of Algebra—Complete Course, by D. E. Smith and W. D. Reeve. Boston, Mass.: Ginn & Co., 1924. Pp. vi+558.

When reading through this text, the reviewer finds the same fund of detail that characterized nearly all the other high school texts in whose production Mr. D. E. Smith has collaborated. A teacher whose hobby is to cultivate in his pupil self-reliance and the habit of digging out solutions of problems for himself, will find little left in the nature of independent thinking on the part of the student to do. The only places in the text where the student is required to do independent thinking are in the general reviews to be found at the end of chapters. In the course of a chapter the exercises are reduced to well-arranged, carefully chosen "types." After working, or having been shown the solution of the first problem of an exercise, the student then and there knows and can do at the moment all of the many similar problems that follow. It appears to the reviewer that although a little of this is desirable, that in this particular text, this feature is carried to a dangerous extreme.

The detail into which the authors have gone to develop the principles of the text so gradually by means of examples, is likewise present in the explanations of the text. The subject matter is very carefully and splendidly developed, leaving in fact very little to be done on the part of the teacher in search of methods of presenting the subject. The writer ventures the opinion that a student of average ability, without the aid of a teacher, could make very satisfactory progress, using this text faithfully. As an example of the extreme care with which the subject matter is presented and developed, one need but cite the first two chapters which cover sixty-two pages—all devoted to the transition from arithmetic to algebra. One hundred seventy-five pages must be covered before simple cases of factoring are reached. Fractions, systematically treated, put in their appearance on page 203; and so on, the development is very gradual, but thorough.

There is enough material in the text for two full years of algebra, so that there is the practical advantage on the part of the pupil that he need not provide himself with another textbook when taking a "second" course in algebra.

A very desirable and important innovation in textbook writing appears in this text, namely in the "timed practice tests"

given systematically throughout the book. These are excellent, and they alone would be ample reason for a progressive teacher to adopt this text. Teachers using other texts and not wishing to make a change will find no where any better *standard* tests for their classes than are given in Smith and Reeve's *Essentials of Algebra*.

OTTO J. RAMLER.

Augustine and Evolution, by Henry Woods, S.J. The Universal Knowledge Foundation.

This work bears the subtitle "A Study in the Saint's *De Genesi ad Litteram* and *De Trinitate*." The author endeavors to prove that Augustine's writings cannot be utilized in support of any theory of Evolution whatsoever. The fact that many writers, favorable to the theory of Evolution, have sought to enlist Augustine's doctrine in their favor, the author maintains, is due to a misinterpretation of the texts. He musters an array of quotations which would indicate that St. Augustine attributes the origin of all species of living things to God's immediate creation, and not to the forces of nature. The celebrated seminal reasons of Augustine are subject to immediate creation, which, until terminated, excludes all other activity, consequently the learned Bishop of Hippo cannot be regarded as a proponent of Evolutionism. The writer of the book carefully selects and skillfully interprets the original text. His reasoning appears cogent indeed. It is to be noted that he is solely concerned with the correct interpretation of St. Augustine's writings and not with the theory of Evolution. This work merits closer scrutiny and commends itself to all students of St. Augustine.

J. J. ROLBIECKI.

An Introduction to Philosophy, by James H. Ryan. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924. Pp. 399.

The present volume was written primarily for college students who are beginning the study of philosophy. The author thought it best to develop the principles of philosophy in the form of projects. He calmly and dispassionately approaches the fundamental problems of philosophy, skillfully presents the most noted solutions which have been proposed, and finally points

out unmistakably the solution which he regards as the best. It must be acknowledged that this method is peculiarly advantageous for the student who in the beginning of his philosophical studies is often perplexed and bewildered by the unfamiliar terminology and the maze of contrary and sometimes hopelessly contradictory opinions. Thus the student is not led into a labyrinth and abandoned to his fate, but is unobtrusively guided and directed in his quest for truth and saved from gloomy scepticism and intellectual disaster.

The author frankly states his own position as that of dualistic realism. He does not attempt to disguise his views and beguile the reader by special pleading or specious argumentation. It is to be remarked that he, no doubt, designedly avoided a fuller discussion of the more difficult problems of space and time and of the ultimate nature of energy and matter.

The last chapter on Philosophy, Science and Religion is perhaps the best. It will prove to be of great value in removing mental conflicts and assisting the student in the acquisition of a sane and firmly established *Weltanschauung*.

The author has succeeded in the difficult task of writing an Introduction to Philosophy. His work compares favorably with many others of similar character and content.

J. J. ROLBIECKI.

The Education of Exceptional Children, by John Louis Horn, Ed. D. New York: The Century Company, 1924. Pp. 343.

What to do with the atypical child, whether his divergence from type be of a mental or of a physical nature, is not the least serious of the problems that confront those who are charged with the responsibility of administering public education. In fact, it may be said that some solution of the question is urgent if the American axiom of equal opportunity for all is to be a guiding principle and not merely a high-sounding phrase. Democracy does not demand that all children shall be given the same education; it does require "an equal start in the race, while expecting at the same time an unequal finish" (Croly). It should "resent any tendencies which interfere with the freedom of opportunity for each to perform for society that service for which he is best fitted and to gain just recognition and

reward" (Henderson). Now children are not all alike; far from it. Not only do they differ in mental endowment, ranging from the idiot to the genius, but there are in every thousand of the child population a certain number so handicapped by temperamental or physical defect that they are not able to take advantage of, much less to profit by, the ordinary instruction given in our schools. It is seen at once that this is the case with the blind and the deaf; but it is not so readily seen that it holds true of the crippled child, the incorrigible and the stammerer also. Everyone sees the need of providing special institutions for the insane and the feeble-minded, who cannot be taken care of in the ordinary school; but few realize that the individuals at the other end of the scale, the geniuses and the highly endowed, are in an entirely different, but no less serious, way handicapped by the limitations of a school system which is of necessity conducted for the great majority, for those who conform more or less closely to a common type. Modern psychological investigation, however, is showing clearly the necessity of differentiation, both as to content and as to method, in the education of children who diverge markedly from type, and this in the interests of the individuals concerned and of society. Thus we have a steadily growing literature, dealing with the treatment of the exceptional child, to which the present work is a worthy contribution.

Mr. Horn, in a preliminary survey, delimits the concept of the exceptional child to "the large group of potentially self-supporting citizens who, by virtue of a handicap, cannot, or because of extraordinary endowment should not, be educated with the great group of typical children" (p. 15). He then takes up a study of what is being done and what should be done for children who are exceptional for reasons primarily mental, temperamental or physical. Under the first group he treats of the most highly endowed and the most poorly endowed (excluding the feeble). The temperamentally exceptional children are, according to his view, which would appear correct, the incorrigibles and truants and the speech defectives, while the physically exceptional are the deaf, the blind and the crippled.

The author's insistence on the need of differentiated education for the super-typical and the sub-typical children, particularly the former, is timely and is supported by strong arguments, both

psychological and sociological. He calls attention to the weaknesses of the various "plans" so far tried to solve the problem of differing intelligence in children of the same chronological age and offers some well-conceived suggestions for the solution of the difficulty.

The discussion of the other types of exceptional children is based on a survey made by the author of actual school practices in the care of such children in sixty-eight cities of the United States having a population of one hundred thousand or over. The statistics compiled from this survey are interesting as giving an idea of the diversity of practice that exists in the manner of dealing with these children. Some cities provide for each of the types under discussion; some have facilities for the separate education of one or more, while a large number make no special provision for the instruction of atypical children. After a careful study of the situation, Mr. Horn points out the merits and defects of the actual practice in dealing with exceptional children and proposes methods of perfecting the former and reducing the latter. His suggestions are not at all arbitrary but are based on sound arguments, and he frankly calls attention to the need of further study and investigation before we shall be in a position to say exactly what procedure should be followed in dealing with children who diverge from type. He concludes his study with a statement of twelve theses in the field of special education which sum up admirably what has been done and what yet remains to be done for the exceptional child. An excellent bibliography, distributed according to chapters, will prove of service for those who wish to pursue further the topics discussed.

EDWARD B. JORDAN.

The Catechist and the Catechumen: A Manual of Religion for Teachers and for Private Instruction, by Rev. Joseph A. Weigand. New York: Benziger Brothers, 1924. Pp. 220. \$1.50 net.

"This Manual is not a textbook on Religion, nor a Catechism. . . . It is meant to help teachers of the lower grades in our schools in presenting the truths of our Faith to the little ones in an interesting manner. . . . The Manual will also be found helpful by parents who interest themselves, as all parents should,

in teaching their smaller children their religion." The author follows closely the order and content of the Baltimore Catechism, explaining each chapter in simple, non-technical language, using the direct rather than the catechetical approach, leaving out some of the less appropriate content of the Baltimore Catechism and substituting material more suitable to the small child. An appendix gives fifty-one examples and anecdotes that may be used by way of illustration.

A 20-page introduction on methods contains some interesting suggestions and views. Of the catechetical method of first proposing questions and definitions to be memorized and later giving the explanations, Father Weigand has this, among other things, to say (p. 21): "How have these definitions been secured? Some learned theologian, or committee of theologians, studied the subject in all its varied details. After so doing, they sat down to analyze the subject and to reduce it, divested of all its ornaments, to the form of a definition, thus supplying us with the pure essence of the truth to be taught, the bare skeleton of the doctrine. The theologian experienced immense interest and pleasure, in going through this process of extracting the pure essence of truth from the material at hand, and he was filled with enthusiasm over his success. Now what? We take this dry skeleton, show it to the pupil to look at, ask him to make himself familiar with every fact and part of it. Then we begin to clothe it again with flesh and skin, by our explanation; try to put back its ornaments; and by the time we succeed in getting life into it, if we do succeed, the pupil has lost interest in the subject." Father Weigand would very rightly reverse the process by explaining the living truth first and by analyzing it afterwards. And incidentally he defends this as the historic Catholic method. He might have added that some things in our current catechetical form and method suggest less the form and method used by the Founder of our faith and the Fathers than the form and method from Luther and his followers (see Catholic Encyclopedia, "Doctrine, Christian").

Regarding the motives to be proposed to the child, the author says: "While the fear of sin and its punishment must, at times, be mentioned, yet the nobler positive motives for compliance with the precepts of religion should be most frequently appealed to. Even the mere natural motives for the practice of virtue

may be proposed with profit" (p. 27). On p. 25 we get a fleeting glimpse of a project or two in moral training in reverence. We wish that many pages had been devoted to this point, as Father Weigand might have done out of his experience.

Two passages on p. 13 are open to exception if the reviewer rightly understands the author. "While the principles of psychology must receive their due share of consideration, we must likewise regard with suspicion, a method which endeavors to build up and develop the teaching of religion on principles of psychology pure and simple." What precisely does this mean? Certainly no modern religious teacher has built more closely upon human psychology than did Our Saviour Himself. "Disguising religious truth under the cheap garb of common play and amusement as the chief vehicle for conveying these truths to the minds of our little ones, is hardly becoming the dignity of the Word of God." Is the emphasis here on "chief"? Or does this mean that dramatics, for example, have no place in religious instruction? If so, the Church has seemed to have erred much in her pedagogical methods. Witness, for instance, the medieval pageants and miracle plays, two historic Catholic pedagogical devices, used particularly at a period when pageants and dramatics were the typical "play and amusement" of child and adult. But perhaps the reviewer has not interpreted correctly these two passages.

JOHN W. COOPER.

Chapters in Social History, by Henry J. Spalding, S.J. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1925. Pp. 457. \$2.00.

The author's theme is the historic influence of Christianity upon human welfare. What has Christianity done for humankind? The chief topics treated are: slavery and serfdom, monasticism and the social order, care of the sick, the guild system, the fine arts, medieval social life, usury, charity, education, the social effects of the Reformation, and the social work of the missions.

Would that these fascinating chapters in Catholic social history fascinatingly presented by Father Spalding might replace or find place alongside of so much of the weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable chronicle of names, places, and events that is crammed into most of our current textbooks in church history

and thence dug out and recrammed into the skull cases of our luckless and defenseless children. There is not a dull page in these "Chapters." Under the author's magic and the very witchery of the facts themselves the dead past is quickened into vibrant life. We see again our fathers in their habits as they lived, and we see at every turn the driving and lifting action of the spirit of Christ energizing through the lives and ways of our Catholic forbears. No romance of fiction is more stirring than the story the author tells.

The book is written in text form with questions and references at the end of each chapter. It should fit well as a textbook in religion or church history for a year's high-school course.

Up to the present we have had no one popular work, except perhaps Balmes and he is now somewhat out of date, to which we could refer students or inquirers for a simple non-technical summary of what the Church has done for humanity and human welfare. It is an odd coincidence, and maybe a significant one—parenthetically, publishers seem to see the point too—that two attempts to do this service are made within less than six months of each other—the present work and Dr. James J. Walsh's "The World's Debt to the Catholic Church." The publication of these two works leaves little excuse for the teacher who in bygone years could say that such material could not be taught in class because it was not readily accessible. Sufficient is now readily accessible within the covers of these two volumes, sufficient at least for a beginning.

The beginning has been made. It remains for the critical Catholic historians to carry on the task. In doing so they will have to do much that these pioneer enterprises could not be expected to do.

They will have to face frankly the failures of Christianity. They will have to paint church history in less roseate hues. They will have to take fuller account of the manifold non-religious factors that have done as much and often more than the religious ones to bring to pass social betterment in many lines. They will have not only to take into consideration such non-Christian influences as have been dealt with in so masterly a manner by scholars like Dill, but they will have also to weigh and adjudge the evidence adduced by historians of morality like Westermarck to buttress the commonly held thesis that

Christianity has done as much evil as good and that it has had much less influence than its apologists maintain. They will have to devote not less attention to the Middle Ages but more to primitive and modern times, particularly to the contemporary century. They will have to submit all the available evidence to the most severe and critical examination and interpretation.

The ideal school text or work for popular reading will not suffer in value if it is honest and frank in facing our historic failures and is modest and tempered in its claims for what the Church has accomplished. Such an ideal text is for the future to bring forth. Meanwhile the work we are reviewing should do notable service.

JOHN W. COOPER.

Talks With Our Daughters, by Sister M. Eleanore, C.S.C., Ph.D. Benziger Bros. 16mo, cloth, net \$1.25. Ooze leather, net, \$2.00.

This attractive little book should be recommended for serious reading to all of our Catholic girls. The author shows a thorough acquaintance with the girl of today, and the difficulties and dangers that beset her path in life. She recognizes the fact that beneath the twentieth century girl's "butterfly" exterior and her pleasure-loving tendencies, there lies frequently a deep spiritual sense, which can and should be awakened and fostered by parents and teachers.

In Part One the author carefully sets forth the responsibility resting upon a Catholic girl to realize the value of her soul and its powers, and to seek the means of working out her destiny in whatever path God may ordain. The requisite qualifications for the three states of life with their corresponding duties and responsibilities are described with equal fairness, and each is accompanied by its due share of wise counsel. Part Two opens out to the girl the various ways and means by which she may exert a helpful influence upon her friends and associates in whatever walk of life she may follow. The author emphasizes in this connection a correct philosophy of life, good reading, kindness, cheerfulness and unselfishness.

The book is written in such a pleasing style that the reading of each chapter whets the appetite for the perusal of the next. It is hoped that Catholic parents and teachers throughout the

country will put it within the reach of their girls, for the influence of these "Talks" is sure to bring beneficial results.

S. N. D.

Literature in the Schools, by Marian A. Dogherty. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1925. Pp. 172.

The desirability of trying to interest pupils in good reading cannot be too often reiterated; nor can the importance of leading them to such an appreciation of the best in literature as will express itself in their own lives be too frequently insisted upon. But there are such excellent treatises on the teaching of reading and literature that a new book on the subject must have unusual merit to command attention.

"Literature in the Schools" by Marian A. Dogherty does not possess such merit. Its sub-title, "How to Present Poetry and Make Book Lovers," like the title, promises more than it gives; the subject-matter, in general, lacks the definiteness, order, and logical coherence which make inspiration of permanent value.

Besides the introduction and a suggestive lesson on Wordsworth, there are three chapters, "Cultivating a Taste for Poetry," "The Appreciation of Prose," and "Do Young People Enjoy Shakespeare?" One good point made throughout these chapters is that the teacher in introducing a piece of literature to her class should do the first oral reading herself; she, "playing the piper" by letting her pupils hear the music of the lines, should assist them to make their first interpretation by her intelligent and sympathetic presentation.

Fourteen full pages of quoted matter from readily accessible sources (not to count the numerous partial pages of excerpts) occupy space that might much more profitably be devoted to a restatement of the fundamental educational principles which must guide a reorganization of courses and a readjustment of methods.

SISTER M. CATHERINE (Ursuline).

The Training of Writers, by Edward F. Garesché, S.J., M.A., LL.B. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924. Pp. 177.

The teacher's opportunity to increase the number of effective writers by drawing out the latent literary power of his pupils

is the point of emphasis in this little volume of Father Garesché's, inspired, it would seem, by the author's own twofold apostolate of teaching and writing.

Beginning with a survey of present-day conditions, in general, the author proceeds to suggest practical means of overcoming the difficulties of environment under which writers of today labor. That there should be a larger number of distinguished authors he concludes from the vast enrollment in college courses; that more could be developed by wisely-directed encouragement on the part of teachers he maintains with equal certainty.

The teacher's working plan in this training of writers is described as getting the pupil to read much and to write much. As an aid in accomplishing the first purpose, Father Garesché gives definite suggestions in the chapter, "Rousing the Imagination," for awakening in the pupil the power of intelligent appreciation of the best literature. The second objective, much practice in writing, is treated under the following chapter headings: "Encouraging the Will to Write," "Their First Beginnings," "Some Instances in Point," "Writing for Fun," "The Rewards of Writing," and "The Mechanics of Publication."

Throughout the book, the author makes a plea for an atmosphere of joyous interest in the English classroom, an atmosphere breathing the encouragement and the hopeful outlook which are the "great essentials in the development of the writer."

Since the volume is offered as a help to teachers, the purpose of the questions at the end of each chapter is not quite clear; but the chapters themselves may well serve to arouse interest in the possibilities of the classroom for the fostering of literary talent.

SISTER M. CATHERINE (Ursuline).

Early Steps in Science, by Webb and Didcoct. Appleton, New York: 1924.

When this book arrived the thought which occurred to the reviewer was: "This is another of those books on general science which appear every fall." But upon reading it he found that he had been mistaken and that his judgment had been premature. This text is more complete, more specific, more practical

than the ordinary run of works on general science. The explanations are easy and plausible. The authors stress the subject of hygiene, as is fitting, and treat the processes of reproduction, as exemplified in flowers, in a sane and sensible manner.

A feature which occupies a large portion of the text is the experimental work. The experiments are simple, yet instructive withal. The personal effort required of the pupil in these investigations brings home to him in a forceful way the application of the principles explained.

There are many timely illustrations and diagrams. This makes the text readily teachable, as recent occurrences and inventions have a vital appeal to the interest of most pupils.

The work is perhaps too inclusive and, therefore, somewhat lengthier than is desirable. There are a few errors. For example, the catalyst used in the Hober process for making ammonia is an active form of iron, and not platinum as stated on p. 462. However, such errors as occur are but minor and are more than counterbalanced by the good qualities of the book.

In a word, *Early Steps in Science* is a book which may be placed advantageously in the hands of any inquiring child and which will prove particularly interesting to those who are possessed of the so-called scientific bent.

SIMON KLOSKY.

Student Government in the Francis W. Parker School

This 40-page pamphlet gives a short history of Student Government as it has been developed in the Francis W. Parker School during the past four years and the Constitution and By-Laws now in effect. Verbatim reports and records of typical students' assembly, jury, and council meetings are included. There is also a summary of jury cases and the rules and regulations governing student activities and conduct. The value of the student government movement to the school is indicated by brief articles giving the point of view of the faculty, the student body, and the parents.

The booklet should be of interest to all interested in the problem of student self-government in high schools.

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